DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 138 159 HE 008 813

AUTHOR	Tan Kim Huon
TITLE	Role of the Universities in Development Planning: The Khmer Republic Case.
INSTITUTION	Regional Inst. of Higher Education and Development, Singapore.
PUB DATE	74
NOTE	57p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development, CSSDI Building, Heng Mui Keng Terrace, Singapore 5 ($3.00)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Bibliographies; *College Role; Cooperative Planning; *Developing Nations; *Economic Development; Educational Planning; Educational Problems; Foreign Countries; *Higher Education; Historical Reviews; Political Influences; *Social Development; Statistical Data; Universities
IDENTIFIERS	Asia (Southeast; *Cambodia; *Government School Relationship; Khmer Republic

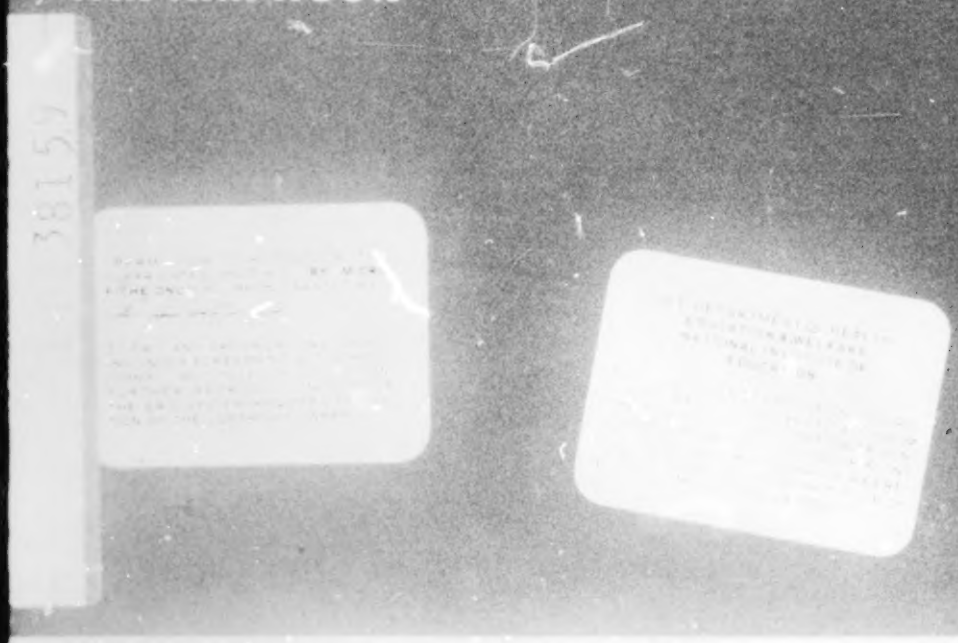
ABSTRACT

The social and economic development in Cambodia (the name of the Khmer Republic before 1970) over the past 10 years is reviewed in this monograph with focus on the role of the universities. Major problem aas are identified as: technical problems of planning, political constraints, sociocultural constraints, administrative obstacles, and substructure constraints. The role of the university is discussed in relation to the following: (1) coordination of higher education planning with national economic planning; (2) survey of university resources available for development planning purposes; (3) extent of university involvement currently prevailing in the formulation and implementation of development plans; and (4) types of contribution the university could make towards development planning. Problems preventing a closer cooperation between the universities and the government are identified, and recommendations for alleviating those problems are discussed. (LBH)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

Role of the Universities in Development Planning: The Khmer Republic Case

TAN KIM HUON



ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING: THE KHMER REPUBLIC CASE

by

Tan Kim Huon

former Rector of The University of Agronomy
Phnom Penh (Khmer Republic)

REGIONAL INSTITUTE OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT
SINGAPORE
1974

Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development
c/o University of Singapore
Bukit Timah Road
Singapore, 10.

Printed by Times Printers, Singapore.

CONTENTS

Page

Section 1 — Historical Background

A — Brief description of social and economic development over the past ten years 1
B — History of development planning in the country 3
C — Nature and scope of development planning 4
D — Evaluation of development plans 7
E — Role of the Universities 9

Section 2 — Development Objectives and Strategy

A — Social and economic policy 10
B — Development objectives 12
C — Development targets 14
D — Sectoral development programmes 16
E — Policy instruments: monetary policy, etc. 21
F — Role of the private sector 23
G — Administrative machinery for planning and implementation 24

Section 3 — Major Problem Areas

A — Technical problems of planning 25
B — Political constraints 25
C — Socio-cultural constraints 26
D — Administrative obstacles 27
E — Substructure constraints 27

Section 4 — Role of the University

A — Brief description of higher education development 29
B — Role and purposes of higher education 30
C — Coordination of higher education planning with national economic planning 31
D — Survey of university resources available for development planning purposes 33
E — Extent of university involvement currently prevailing in the formulation and implementation of development plans 33
F — Types of contribution the university could make towards development planning 34
G — Problems preventing a closer cooperation between the universities and the government 35
H — Recommendations for alleviating these problems and bringing about a closer working relationship between the university and the government for development planning 35

Section 5 — Conclusions 36

CONTENTS

Page

Selected Bibliography 39

Statistical Appendices

Kindergarten 41
Primary Education 42
Secondary Education 43
Student Enrolment in National Universities, 1960-72 44
Higher Level Student Enrolment in National Universities, 1960-72 46
Curves of Students in Three Levels 47
Population by Sexes and Ages of Cambodia (1962) 48
Pyramid of Ages of Cambodia Population 49
Map of Cambodia (Khmer Republic) 50
Currency Equivalents for Riels 51

Section 1

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

A — BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OVER THE PAST TEN YEARS.

The social and economic life of the Khmer Republic during the last ten years has reflected its political history and its economic policies.

Becoming independent in 1953, after one century of French colonization, Cambodia (the name of the Khmer Republic before March 1970) still depends to a great extent on the developments of the world economy.

Demography — A demographic census was carried out in April 1962, the first to give fairly precise statistical figures. In 1962, the population of Cambodia reached 5,757,000 inhabitants, with a relatively low demographic density of 32 inhabitants per km2 (for a country area of 181,000 km2).

The age groups for five years periods show that the composition by sex and by age is constant, with a large number of young persons and a relatively small number of old persons. The distribution is as follows: under 20 — 53.00%; ages 20 to 60 — 42.11%; over 60 — 4.89%.

The life expectancy of 42-43 years, is very low compared with the developed countries (Sweden: 76.5 years for females and 71.9 years for males).

The birth rate averages 4.7% and the death rate 2.0%. As there is little international migration in Cambodia, the demographical increase averages 2.7%, which doubles the population every 26 years.

Cambodia, like other developing countries, is experiencing a rapid population growth which is estimated as below:

1960	5.49 millions	1975	8.08 millions
1965	6.20	1980	9.37
1970	7.05	2000	17.25

Social conditions — The majority of the population is rural: 93% of the population lived in the country side in 1962 and 90% in 1970. After the North Vietnamese aggression, beginning March 1970, the urban population rapidly increased. For example, Phnom Penh with 600,000 inhabitants in 1969, has tripled its population in three years.

The working population comprises about 45% of the total population of Cambodia, of which 80% is in the primary sector (agriculture), 16% in the secondary sector (industry) and 4% in the tertiary sector (business).

Ten per cent of the population is made up of foreigners such as Chinese and Vietnamese. In spite of their low number, these two ethnic minorities play a very important economic role, because they are active in industry and commerce.

The study of the socio-professional categories shows a great social and political stability, the majority of the population is engaged in agriculture with very few in industry.

Because over half of the population is under twenty years of age, a heavy burden falls upon the working population to meet the needs for schools and health centers.

History of the economic policy — The economic policy of the past ten years can be divided into three distinct periods:

i — The first period previous to 1963 was characterized by economic liberalism. Non agricultural business activities were in the hands of private companies. The cooperative sector of the economy flourished in the field of agriculture. However, four state enterprises were born about 1960, the result of aid from the People's Republic of China.

ii — The second period, from 1963 to 1969, was characterized by a tendency towards government control of production. The economic and financial reforms decided by the government in November 1963 was followed by the rejection of American economic aid. It resulted in nationalization of foreign trade, nationalization of banks, establishment of numerous state or mixed (state and private capital) companies. The management of the state enterprises, under the direction of unprepared staff, failed in many cases. The nationalization of foreign trade resulted in a decrease in custom and fiscal receipts.

iii — The third period, since 1970, is in some way, a reaction to the policies of nationalization. The political National Congress, held in Phnom Penh in December 1969, approved the programme of economic liberalism. Later, measures taken in that direction were: reform of the National Import and Export Company or SONEXIM (February and November 1970), liberalization of the banks (February 1970 and March 1971), suppression of some commercial companies.

The enemy aggression, begun on March 1970, has become increasingly serious. Inside the country, the economic and financial situation is critical. Outside, the Indochina war has continued despite American efforts to terminate it.

Economic development — The total economic growth during the last ten years is slight. The average rate of economic growth from 1952 to 1969 was only 5.7% (gross rate) or 3.0% (net rate after deducting the demographic increase) a low rate compared to other countries in Southeast Asia.

The estimated gross rates by period are:

1952 — 1958, growth rate of 5.5%
1958 — 1963, growth rate of 7.3%
1963 — 1969, growth rate of 2.5%

This shows that during the 1963-69 period, real growth, after deduction of the demographic growth, is negative. Since the war begun the country has suffered extensive material losses. In less than three years, the material destruction has risen to 2.5 billions US dollars (value at 1969) according to the first valuations, an enormous loss for the Khmer Republic.

Taking everything into consideration, the economic development of the Khmer Republic is slow with regard to its neighbours in Southeast Asia. This affects the development of higher education.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The gross national product per inhabitant is very low. Before the war began, at the rate of 35 riels (national currency) per US dollar, the GNP in US dollars per inhabitant (at the constant prices of 1966) was the following:

Year	Total GNP (billions riels)	Population (millions)	GNP/capita (US dollars)
1960	25.482	5.49	133
1963	29.356	5.90	143
1965	29.914	6.20	137
1968	34.381	6.69	149
1969	35.122	6.87	146

B--HISTORY OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

Cambodia set about economic planning rather late. The first plan, a very modest one, began only in 1956.

Difficulties of statistical study --The lack of basic data and the uncertainty of statistical documents has been felt for some time. Usable information existed from before 1945, and from the French Protectorate epoch, but during the intermediate period preceding independence, studies were not continued.

Research carried out since 1956 has led to the estimations of the gross national product reported in the important document "Retrospective Statistics Yearbook of Cambodia" (Phnom Penh, 1957). An examination of the figures collected reveal the difficulties of documenting the economic structure of Cambodia.

The lack of statistics and usable figures in some fields or some epochs led to piecemeal estimating.

Since 1962, with the help of international experts, Cambodia gradually improved its system of statistical records. Thus from 1962 to 1969, a detailed annual economic account was produced which constitutes a valuable reference for economic studies in the future.

Unfortunately political developments since March 1970 have prevented completion of economical and statistical accounts for the last three years.

Development plans --Since 1956, three development plans have covered the period of 1956-1972. These are:

- the Biennial Plan (1956-58)
- the first Five Year Plan (1960-64)
- the second Five Year Plan (1968-72)

Notice that, on one hand, the different plans do not cover a continuous duration. Between the different plans, there are periods which are not covered by the plans: 1959, 1965 to 1967. The main reason is due to the delay in the compilation of suitable statistical figures and the lack of means of financing the studies.

On the other hand, the second Five Year Plan (1968-72) has been interrupted since March 1970 because of the internal political situation.

C—NATURE AND SCOPE OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

The three plans covered the period from 1956 to 1972:

The Biennial Plan (1956-58)

At the time of independence, the lack of basic economic data and statistics prevented the establishment of a plan with coherent economic policy. Thus a preliminary programme was formed, the plan waiting for the second phase, which began in 1956.

The Biennial Plan covered two dry seasons (1956 and 1957) and ended June 30th 1958. The lack of serious information required the presentation of objectives in descriptive form. The distribution of investments to be made in different sectors was a function of the indirect financial indexes determined more or less arbitrarily by extrapolation from available datum in Southeast Asian countries having similar economies.

From the examination of comparable Southeast Asian economies, the desirable investment distribution was decided as follows: social equipment (schools, hospitals) 30%; substructure (roads, bridges, ports, airports, railroads) 5%, agriculture 20%. Industrialization was to wait until the second or third plan.

Then it was a question of balancing expenses and production and sharing out the expenses accordingly, so that the action of the State would not unfavourably influence the economic stability of the country. More than a development plan, this was an expectation programme.

The objectives —The objectives, show that Cambodia wanted to give priority to agriculture and light or food industries, and refused to sacrifice in the first stage the living standard of its population which was already low. For an expense of 3,500 million riels spread out over two years, 1,330 million was devoted to substructure, 665 million to social equipment and 1,330 million to production, respectively, 38%, 19% and 38%. The remaining 5% was appropriated to the general section (national and statistical inventory, geographical research, meteorology, tourism: ...). More than half of the expenses provided for this general section were appropriated to tourism.

The production section allotted the major share to agriculture. The substructure section realized effort which must be undertaken for the construction of the American highway joining Phnom Penh to Kompong Som, the port of Kompong Som and the airport of Pochentong. The social equipment section distributed the expenses in stock equally between education, public health, town planning and dwelling. Also it was expected that a net profit would come from the private sector, the exact amount uncertain because of a lack of well-established information.

Financing —The estimates of the Biennial Plan's financing included a large amount of foreign aid. Of the 3,500 million riels of expenses, the State budget and the Khmer public collectivities financed only 80 million. The principal contributions were aid from the U.S. (57.1%), People's Republic of China (22.9%), France (16.55%). Financing through private investments was excluded from these calculations, as well as U.N. Aid, and aid from specialized institutions and volunteer private contributions. In addition, as the Biennial

Plan was about to be carried out, the new resources were made available through the Colombo Plan, Russian aid, Cambodian collectivities, and the National Equipment Fund. It is important to notice that Russian aid and Chinese aid started only in 1957.

The multiplicity of the financing sources, and the more or less uncertainty of the aid, since it depended to a great extent on decisions of foreign governments, did not facilitate the preparation of the plan, which was only a group of juxtaposed projects taking briefly into account the financial indexes. In fact, a balance was established and corresponded to a kind of division of tasks undertaken as a function of several bilateral conventions. The American and French aid provided for the substructure (road and port of Kompong Som, airport of Pochentong), the Chinese aid for the sector of production (weaving factory, plywood, cement factory, animal breeding centers, small hydraulics). For departments which had at the same time to learn new methods and put them into practice, negotiating aid and coordinating projects was a difficult task. The execution of the plan reflected the effects of such difficulties.

The First Five Year Plan (1960-64).

The overall objectives —The Quinquennial Plan was to cover the second half of 1958, the years 1959 to 1962, and the first half of 1963. Eventually it was decided that the plan would begin in 1960, the interval being occupied by the execution of the complementary operations of the Biennial Plan. The basic gross national product (GNP) was based upon the 1956-57 estimated GNP of 15,000 million riels. The total population census, carried out by soundings and estimates, was about 4,470,000 inhabitants, for a GNP of 3,120 riels per capita. With a rate of demographic growth of 2%, the First Five Year Plan proposed to raise the GNP to 18,910 million riels.

The 1960-64 Plan gave priority to the operations concerned directly with production development. Accordingly it emphasized agricultural production and industrialization by transformation of local products. One was on an equal footing with the other. The plan encouraged sugar refining, jute spinning, meat, fish, and vegetable canning, cotton spinning and weaving. The diversification reinforced the economy, lightening the risks, of dependence upon the two predominant crops of rice and rubber, always liable to reflect the international variations of the market of raw materials. The objectives were import, substitution, foreign exchange earnings, increased employment and increased natural income.

The First Five Year Plan intended to improve tillable lands through development of hydraulics, drainage, and irrigation. Road structure was to be improved along with the quality of education.

The Plan projections —In order to obtain in five years an increase of GNP up to 4,100 million riels, an investment of 15,300 million riels was necessary. The hypothesis that the coefficient of productivity (capital output ratio) would be 3:1 was adopted. With regard to investments in the field of production, the capital output ratio is about 1.5:1, but substructure and social equipment being slight, it was necessary to adopt the higher ratio of 3:1.

The investment was to come from the private sector at the rate of 6,300 million, and from the public sector at the rate of 8,000 million riels. The plan

anticipated self financing (rubber plantations), further utilization of arable lands and use of the reserve of unemployed manual labour. It did not anticipate stimulants such as special loans, custom duty reduction, etc. It included guarantees against nationalization of foreign investments.

With regard to public investments, the plan provided for a distribution in four funds of a total amount of 8,000 million riels during the five years. 3,200 million were allocated to the development of production and 4,800 million to substructure, as well as to social and administrative structure. When the rate of expenditure for the Biennial Plan reached 70 million riels per month, the rate of expenditure of the Five Year Plan was to be 120 million riels per month.

The financing of public investments —The financing of private investment was left to the initiative of the enterprises or the individuals which had resources available. Three fourths of the 8,000 million riels of public investment was to be financed by national funds. Thus the government share of the GNP was to increase from 15.7% to 25% at the end of the Five Year Plan. Deficit financing was seen as necessary.

The plan also depended on foreign aid. Sixty per cent of the expenditures were to be on imports, or an amount equal to 9,000 million riels. Foreign aid could cover a third of this amount, the balance coming from reserves of the National Bank of Cambodia and increased exports. In Cambodia, as in other developing countries in Southeast Asia, the problems of planning remain closely connected to the problems of foreign trade.

The Second Five Year Plan (1968-72) —After devoting a considerable period of time, from 1965 to 1967, to evaluating the results of the First Five Year Plan, the Ministry of Planning was able to present a Second Five Year Plan from 1968 to 1972, which was better designed, more detailed and, in general, more orthodox.

The objectives —In adopting an average growth rate of 5%, the GNP was to move from 31,200 million riels to 39,100 million (at constant prices of 1968). In line with the experience and plans of the other developing countries, Cambodia adopted the rate of formation of capital C/P equal to 3.6 and the total rate of formation of capital of 18%.

With this fundamental data, priorities in the different sectors of the economy were determined. Agriculture and the development of substructure are two highly favoured branches. The total investments amount to 32,000 million riels (at 1968's prices).

The methods —In order to reach the objectives fixed in the Plan, the government ordered a certain number of measures:

— measures with a view to encourage foreign investments: fiscal advantages, guaranty of non-nationalization, authorization of transfer of the profits,

— measures with a view to favour agriculture. The principle "Agriculture supports industry, and industry develops agriculture" was the rule of general behaviour. In association with this a policy of supporting agricultural prices,

vis-a-vis industrial raw materials like cotton and jute was applied. The support of agricultural production was to be realized by agricultural loans, the organization of cooperatives and production of fertilizers, small agricultural machineries, etc.

The financing — Both interior and exterior sources of investments were envisaged:

— interior sources could come from economic agencies: families, enterprises, the administrative and financial institutions;

— exterior sources include foreign aid and foreign loans and borrowing.

In conclusion, the whole of these three Plans can be summarized in the following table:

Targets	Plan 1956-58	Plan 1960-64	Plan 1968-72
Total investments (in billions of riels at current prices)	3.5	5.9	32.0
Public investments	3.5	4.0	11.5
Sources of public financing (in %)			
— national	2%	68%	82%
— foreign aid and loans	98%	32%	18%
Financing by activities (in % of public investments)			
— production	38%	40%	65%
— infrastructure	38%	28%	20%
— social equipment	19%	25%	10%
— administrative equipment	5%	7%	5%

D — EVALUATION OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS.

The results of 1956-58 Plan — The amount of expenditure from a census made in June 1958, was 2,500 million riels, against 3,500 million previously foreseen. Although 70% of the plan was met, there were internal factors which account for this discrepancy. An analysis of the three main funds of expenditures reveals a lack of balance. The total objectives in the field of substructure have been achieved, and in the development of social equipment, objectives have been approximately reached, but the accomplishments in the field of production have been insufficient. The successes have been obtained in the non-productive sectors, while the failure has been in the sector which was expected to generate new income.

The hydraulic programmes for agriculture and animal husbandry realized only 25% of their goal. In the field of industry and handicraft, the achievement was 10% of the goal, 18%-of fisheries and forestry. The agricultural equipment expenditures covered only 22% of the projects and aid to production only 55%. The shortage of technicians, and the lack of imagination of the administrative services largely explain the shortcomings.

Thus executed, the Biennial Plan has nevertheless, contributed in the long

run to the expansion of the Cambodian economy, even if it has engendered some difficulties in the short and medium run.

First Five Year Plan —As a whole, the average growth rate obtained of 4.30% is lower than the planned rate of 5% per year. This decrease was largely caused by the accidents of climate, causing decreases in agricultural production.

During the period of the First Five Year Plan, the total public investments amounted to 6.467 million riels. From this amount, after deducting the common administrative expenditures, there remains from the public investments a net total a little higher than 5,500 million riels. The distribution of the public investments is the following:

Sector	Forecast of the plan	Results reached
Production	40%	36%
Substructure	28%	24%
Social equipment	25%	30%
Administrative equipment	7%	10%
	100%	100%

The private investments, difficult to estimate, appear considerable. During the period of the plan, they amounted to 13,500 million riels, a fund three times more than the expected. It is true that a great part of these investments are utilized for construction. The distribution of the private investments is as follows:

Buildings	61.4%
Machines and tools	25.0%
Increase of stocks	9.5%
Miscellaneous	4.1%

The total volume of investments during the Five Year Plan has been very satisfactory, exceeding the amount which had been fixed as an objective.

Second Five Year Plan —Because of the war, the second Five Year Plan could not be fully executed. In fact, since March 1970, the war situation has disturbed all the economic and social systems of the country.

During the first two years of the Plan (1968-72), the growth appeared very slight. In proportion to 1967 (index 100), the Gross National Product (GNP) reached 104.5 in 1968, and 106.8 in 1969. The growth rate did not reach the 5% planned. This economic crisis, followed by financial difficulties, was an important factor in the dismissal of Norodom Sihanouk, former Cambodian Chief of State.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Since March 1970, agriculture has suffered in regions where insecurity prevails. The rice fields must be given up in the sectors of combat, but the province of Battambang which furnishes 75% of the native production has remained calm till now. The problem is in transporting the rice from Battambang towards Phnom Penh and the deficient provinces. The production of rubber has dropped from 52,000 metric tons per year to nearly zero, because all the large rubber companies are located at East of the Mekong River, in the zone of combat.

In the industrial field, some state factories are located either in the zone controlled by the enemy (paper mill of Chh'ong), or have been seriously damaged (textile mill at Kompong Cham, cement factory at Chakrey Ting). The petrol refinery of Kompong Som has ceased operation. Only the enterprises in Phnom Penh continue to operate normally.

The national output having dropped greatly the country exported very little in 1970 and 1971. On the other hand, it is necessary to continue to import in order to satisfy the basic needs for consumption, in spite of the import limitations set by the government. The financial situation depends upon foreign aid, especially American aid.

E — ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES.

Being young the contributions of Khmer Universities to development planning are modest.

The administrators in charge of the Plan suffered from lack of qualified staff during the 1960's. Therefore they must depend often on foreigners and international experts of the U.N. to help the Khmer government set up development plans and assure their execution and control.

At the very most, during the last ten years, the Universities have initiated the students to the problems of the country through training in the laboratory and in the field, and through research papers.

Section 2

DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGY

A — SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POLICY.

This policy was well defined by the declaration of the Chief of State of the Khmer Republic (18th October 1970) and especially by the Constitution of the Khmer Republic of 10th May 1972.

Cambodia being essentially an agricultural and developing country, its social and economic policy is determined by the republican motto: liberty, equality, fraternity, progress and happiness.

Because of the war, all the attention of the country has been turned towards the efforts of war. The military force was expanded rapidly from 30,000 men in March 1970 to 250,000 men in December 1972. The military expenditures represented and represent now a very important share of the national budget (more than 60%).

Destroyed to a great extent by the war, the Khmer Republic has to plan its development from the present concrete conditions. At the same time, with the perspective of peace, it is necessary to study the use of military staff in the work of production or the reconverting of the military structures towards the plan of reconstruction and development.

For that reason, the Ministry of Planning has decided that the economic development of the country will involve two phases:

— a phase of restoration of two to three years which lasts from 1973 to 1975,

— a phase of reconstruction and development with a quinquennial duration, from 1976 to 1980.

This division has the advantage on one hand, of activating a short period of restoration and on the other hand of terminating the 70's with the end of a third national Quinquennial Plan.

Principles stated in the Constitution — The main articles are:

Article 14. — The State shall recognize and guarantee private property. It shall encourage citizens to gain access to property.

Any trespass upon property shall be prohibited except in such cases as will be provided by the law for the cause of public utility. In such circumstances the proprietor shall have the right to a previous, just and equitable compensation.

Article 15. — The State shall supervise the improvement of the condition of such categories as of the least favoured socio-professionals with a view to assuring them a standard of living compatible with human dignity.

Any citizen recognized as incapable for work and lacking means to make a living shall have the right to social assistance.

Article 16. — The State shall protect the freedom of manual trade, agriculture, commerce and industry.

The State has the duty to adjust the said freedom in order to coordinate

national economy for social purposes and to prevent any monopoly and any attempt of monopoly in commerce and industry.

Article 17.—The State shall make efforts to obtain employment for all citizens.

All citizens shall have free access to all employment. They shall not suffer from any preference other than their merit and competence.

They shall have the right to social insurances and advantages provided by law.

The freedom of trade-association shall be prescribed by law.

Article 18.—The State shall make efforts to combat all forms of usury.

Article 19.—The State shall assure all citizens of the right to education. Basic instruction shall be obligatory and free of charge.

The State shall promote literature, science, arts and technology.

General policy —The Khmer Republic is a developing country with a low density of population, devastated by the war and with wide mass-poverty.

There are two basic causes of poverty:

—unemployment and underemployment and

—low levels of productivity of employed labour

Underemployment is a widespread and serious problem in most of the developing countries. In rural areas in Cambodia, underemployment is frequently a seasonal phenomenon, and depends a great deal on cropping systems and diversification of agricultural production.

Unemployment is high in urban areas, in particular. It seems to be the entrance to the labour market that causes difficulties. This is also the case in the increasing number of educated unemployed. In rural areas, unemployment often takes the form of seasonal unemployment. Such unemployment may also be looked upon as a consequence of very low productivity. During the slack seasons, productivity is zero or close to zero and it may not pay the farmer to work even on his own farm.

a) Growth and poverty —It is beyond dispute that the definitive way to eradicate poverty and raise the standard of living of the broad masses of the people is through increased production per person. As long as production per capita is very low, the problem cannot be solved effectively simply by redistributing the existing national income. Any long-term policy against poverty must therefore emphasize the goal of high rates of growth of GNP per capita.

Fortunately, in the short-term, there should not be any necessary conflict between policies for increased growth and against poverty. The experience of the developing countries is that rapid growth prevents falling employment and mass poverty. Both problems can be tackled simultaneously and, by adoption of the right kind of policies, they may even be complementary.

In rural areas, agricultural investments may get their highest returns when directed toward low-productivity areas, and harmony exists between the goals of increased output, increased employment, and alleviation of mass poverty. On the other hand, we must take full advantage of the growth and employment potentialities of the new technology in agriculture.

While the combined growth and anti-poverty policies should thus have

their centre of gravity in the rural areas, this does not mean, of course, that urban development should be ignored or sacrificed. Urban poverty is also a serious problem, although its dimensions may be less. Its root cause is partly unemployment and partly low productivity in some of the service sectors that absorb much of the labour force.

b) Domestic savings —For the expansion of investment activities, the Khmer Republic has to increase its reliance on domestic financing. For this purpose, there are private savings and public savings.

Although everything possible should be done to encourage private savings and channel such savings to their most effective use through the establishment of adequate credit institutions and incentives to save, the government should not rely primarily on private savings as a major source of increased domestic finances. Private savings are difficult to influence and the distributional effect on them is not clear. The only realistic policy for a substantial increase in domestic savings is therefore through increased public savings.

With the possibility of reducing defence expenditures that weigh heavily on the budget, the key problem in increasing domestic savings is clearly to expand public revenues so much that they do not only cover the increase in current expenditure but also contribute to public savings.

c) Economic growth and social justice —A major policy which confronts the developing countries is how to bring about a better combination of economic growth and social justice. In this context, it is necessary to examine whether there is any inherent incompatibility between a faster rate of economic growth and greater social justice.

B — DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES.

The U.N. General Assembly resolution lays down that the average annual rate of growth in the gross product of the developing countries as a whole during the Second Development Decade should be at least 6%, which on the basis of an average annual increase of 2.5% in population, would mean an average annual rise of 3.5% in per capita product. The proposed growth target would imply achievement of an average annual expansion of 4% in agricultural output and 8% in manufacturing output. It would also necessitate an average annual expansion of 0.5 percentage point in the ratio of gross domestic saving to the gross product, so as to raise the ratio to around 20% by 1980, together with an average annual expansion of somewhat less than 7% in imports and somewhat more than 7% in exports.

The Khmer Republic considers this U.N. target as its own target and will try to obtain yearly a gross national product rate of 6%. Of course, it is clear that this goal is very hard for our country to reach because of the war during these three years. It will be difficult to predict with accuracy what the results of economic growth rate will be. All depends on the rapidity and the coherence with which we can transfer potential resources into productive purposes.

Period of restoration (1973-75) —The objectives of the restoration aim for the reconstitution of the past economy and aim at:

DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

a—the implantation of refugees and the consolidation of the rural society, indispensable conditions to bring back people to the farms, which were given up during the insecurity of war.

These operations of implantation, are supported by the programmes of rural equipment (schools, hospitals, lodgings, etc.), supporting the education and the improvement of the quality and the productive capacity of the young working force.

The key to the reestablishment of agriculture depends on the ability to reach the pre-war production level before the end of this three year period.

The setting up of a financial support mechanism is highly desirable, in order to rapidly reach these objectives, especially because of the slight income of these farmers.

b—the reconstruction of the substructure, by the restoration of the transport networks, indispensable conditions for the standardization of the economic transactions between the regions of production and for consumption.

c—the reconstruction of the industrial sector includes:
the reconstruction of the damaged means of production;
the restoration of the level of productivity of the industries in decline;
the placing of new industries, and the setting up of a foundation for long-term industrialization.

The fast growth of the economy requires especially the correction of the distortions caused by the war. It implies nevertheless maintenance of employment at a high level, which may intensify inflation pressures.

Since none of these problems is being solved—the restoration of the agriculture, the substructure's reconstruction and the industrial reconstruction—a strong intervention by the state is required. Planning is urgently needed. The issue depends on two factors:

a: the ability of the economy to mobilize the internal and external resources in order to finance the programmes.

b: the adaptation to inflation pressures. Such planning should strengthen the regions of the Cambodian Republic and build the foundation for a strong nation.

Phase of reconstruction and development —The aspired goals are:

a—mobilization of all potential resources (capital and human) into means of production.

b—maintenance of employment at a high level, and in the atmosphere of relative stability of prices.

c—increase of income per capita, with incentive to increase consumption.

d—reduction of the variations of the standard of living of different social classes and between different geographical regions, by an equitable distribution of incomes, and by policies of taxation and employment.

e—raising the rural standard of living by the increase of agricultural productivity, land reform, the setting up of the rural equipment programmes, and the establishment of regional centers, with a view to reach the gradual and progressive integration from rural life to urban life.

f—independence vis-a-vis foreign aid.

The development of Cambodia will require not only appropriate planning, but also flexible economic policies, stimulating growth directly by public action

and by the settlement of an adequate environment in which private initiative can operate effectively.

C — DEVELOPMENT TARGETS.

Human resources — Nowadays it is common in setting up plans of social and economic development, to include among other indispensable elements, a strategy for the development of human resources.

This strategy includes at least six essential elements:

a — evaluation of the needs for manual labour, which takes account of the possibilities of execution of the reconstruction Plan and development. These needs are studied by categories of staff (high rank's list, technician's list, specialist's list, labourer's list).

b — a programme for the development of education. The attached educational statistics (see section 7) show the quantitative progress in the field of education. It is time to conduct research on the quality of education.

c — a programme for the strengthening of preparation for employment. Technical and professional education must be renovated in order to satisfy the future needs of agriculture and industry.

d — a programme to encourage professional development and to provide non-financial incentives as well as financial ones.

e — a programme of sanitary action which preserves good health and good physical conditions in the family of the workers. In this programme, one can include also measures tending to raise the level of consumption, the conditions of work, the leisure activities, lodging, etc.

f — a method to integrate the planning of the human resources to development planning.

Principles of investment — These principles vary with the different activities.

a — Principles of agricultural investment — Agricultural investment should contribute:

— to develop the cultivation of products destined for the needs of local industries and for export.

— to lower the cost of agricultural production by increasing productivity, by a rational policy of agricultural colonization, by lowering the prices of the means of production (power, manure, pesticides), by methods of sowing, irrigation and mechanisation.

— to improve commercialization of high market value products.

— to organize the rural economy in such a way as to reduce the income gap between the rural and urban sectors through modernization of the organization of mutual societies and cooperatives, by the injection of credit and creation of saving facilities.

b — Principles of industrial investment — Industrial investment should work to:

— develop agriculture by industrial transformation of agricultural products and by production of means of agricultural production (fertilizers, pesticides, mechanisation, agricultural machineries).

— bring about the principal uses of raw materials or of semi-finished products.

— contribute to the parallel development of agriculture and industrialisation on the principle that agriculture supports industry and industry develops agriculture.

— stabilize secondary products coming either from the agricultural and the industrial sectors.

— permit the substitution of imported products with domestic ones.

c — Principles of investment in transport — Transport investment should:

— aim to secure part of the maritime transport by nationals, thus checking the outflow of currency.

— aid the development of railways and ports.

— facilitate the transport of products and merchandise from distant regions.

— aid the development of unexploited regions and contribute to national development.

— decentralize the large towns and solve, indirectly, part of the unemployment problem by aiding the policy of colonization of new land.

— aid the development of tourism.

— enable the improvement of navigation conditions on canals and rivers.

— contribute to the defence of the frontiers.

d — Principles of social investment — Social investment in the socio-cultural field should aim at:

— creating new attractions in regions with a low population density (the development of these areas of health and education facilities, of urbanization, of internal roads, of community centres);

— fixing the population of regions already supplied with acceptable living conditions;

— generally achieve social objectives in the fields of health, education and urbanization.

Foreign investments — In order to encourage foreign investments, the following measures have been taken:

a — Fiscal advantages:

a) Exemption of registration and stamp duties concerning the constitutive act of the company and the increase of capital.

b) Exemption of import duties on equipment goods, and staple products indispensable for the functioning of the enterprise.

c) Exemption of land tax on rural property and on cultivated land.

d) Exemption of tax on benefits.

e) Exemption of tax on the incomes of the transferable securities for issued incomes.

f) Exemption of tax on the incomes of the transferable securities in case of increasing the capital.

b — Other advantages:

a) Guarantee of non-nationalization for a period from ten to twenty years.

b) Medium and long-term loans by the Cambodian Bank of Development.

c) Prohibition of imports of similar products if the production is judged sufficient both in quantity and quality for the need of the country.

d) Sufficient supplies of raw materials.

D — SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES.

Within the framework of development objectives, as presented in Section C, we present now some sectorial aspects of the main activities:

Agriculture — The war has seriously disturbed the agricultural economy. It caused in particular the destruction of cultures (arboriculture, rubber plantations) and agricultural equipment, the reduction of rice crops, and the decrease of draft animals indispensable to the rice-culture.

a) Recent economic development — In the primary sector, output of the major products, rubber and paddy, declined significantly.

The production of paddy, the main export crop, varies considerably from year to year. In the 1969-70 season (before the war), paddy production reached a record level of 3.8 million metric tons. Due to the insecurity in rural areas causing a shortage of labour and draft animals and a decrease in the area under cultivation, the production of paddy declined to 2.1 million metric tons.

Production of other crops also suffered greatly from the war. The area under cultivation has decreased significantly since the 1969-70 season. Rubber output has fallen from 51,000 metric tons in 1969 to 6,000 tons for this year, because the Northeast region, where the rubber plantations are situated, is no longer under the control of the Government.

Data on forestry, livestock and fishery production are not available, but the war continues to have devastating effects on those branches of economic activity.

b) Planning in agriculture — Cambodia being essentially agricultural, it is agriculture which must have priority in the Plan of Reconstruction and Development (1973-80). The general objectives of agriculture is to reach the levels of production of 1969 at the end of 1975 (period of reconstruction) and to increase agricultural production levels during the period of development from 1976 to 1980.

A list of 60 projects of development are planned, including eight large compound projects.

DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

Calculated in accounting value (at 1972 prices), these different projects can stimulate agricultural development of 28% during the period 1973-80. The projected gross national product of agriculture follows:

(value in millions of riels) (1972 prices)

Branches	1974	1980	% increase 1974-1980
Agricultural products	30,356	39,669	31%
Heveaculture	412	953	130%
Animal products	6,879	8,562	25%
Fishery products	2,094	2,510	20%
Forest products	5,281	5,830	11%
Primary sector	45,023	57,520	28%

Mining — Until now, the works of mining prospects reveal only small deposits of mining products. In the coming years, these works must be conducted more methodically and in depth. On commercial grounds, only the iron ores of Phnom Dek (Kompong Thom) and the precious stones of Pailin (Battambang) merit the attention of the investors.

One must have some hopes about the off-shore petroleum exploitation in the continental basin of the Gulf of Thailand. A French company has obtained a license for hydrocarbon exploration in the Khmer zone of the gulf and the first preliminary work was undertaken in March, 1970.

Manufacturing — The industrialization plan for 1973-80 is divided into two periods: the reconstruction period from 1973 to 1975 and the development period from 1976 to 1980.

In 1970, on the eve of the enemy aggression, there were the following enterprises (employing more than 6 workers).

The industrialization plan is principally a function of the actual requirements to satisfy the needs of final consumption of the Khmer Republic in 1980, but also includes a certain number of intermediate products. The considered projections take account of the possibilities of export of some mineral and manufactured products.

Branches	Number of enterprises	Classification by effective		Total effective	Effective in small enterprises	Effective in large enterprises
		6-50	50+			
Food industries, beverage, tobacco	288	268	20	8,503	2,537	5,966
Textiles, clothing, leather	158	130	28	8,895	2,253	6,642
Lumber, paper, printing	345	336	9	5,524	4,144	1,380
Chemical, rubber, non-metallurgical minerals and plastics	255	225	30	7,813	3,759	4,054
Metals and mechanics	394	353	39	10,301	5,978	4,323
Total	1,440	1,312	126	41,036	18,671	22,365
					45.5%	54.5%

DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES

a — Objectives of the Industrialization Plan — They are different from each of the two programmes, reconstruction and development.

Concerning the programme of reconstruction (1973-75), the objectives are to repair the destroyed industrial units in order to reach the production level of 1969, to provide the indispensable products and materials for the reconstruction of the cities, the thorough fares for agriculture.

Concerning the programme of industrial development, the objectives are: to build an industrial sector capable of promoting and later supporting an economic and industrial growth, and to develop the international competitiveness of the exporting industries.

A 10% rate of growth of industrial production has been set. This growth has been lower than the anterior period (12.4% rate between 1963 and 1969), but it is necessary if the reconstruction programme is to be achieved.

b — Industrial policy — With the policy of economic liberalization, the present industries are to sell their products on the market where they face national competition (state and private companies) and international competition. For that reason, it is necessary:

— to reduce to the minimum the cost of manufacturing necessary to obtain the products.

— to assure a better rate of efficiency from the available manual labour.

— to improve technologies.

— to avoid wasting expensive raw materials.

i) Encouragement measures for handicraft and small industries. — Improvement of the techniques of production; creation of cooperative groups; orient the small enterprises towards the activities or the regions considered as preferred, to provide financing means.

ii) Encouragement of the large enterprises. — It is necessary to distinguish the public enterprises and the private enterprises.

The state industrial enterprises which operated before 1970 under the protection of the state, in order to be competitive, must now make important efforts to improve their production and their profits.

The private industrial enterprises must be financially and technically helped. An investment code can fix the conditions of encouragement concerning the establishment of certain industries.

Professional groups such as the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, the industrial federation and the cooperative groups will be encouraged.

c — Roles of industrial development — In order to prevent the dispersion of efforts and means, the industrial enterprises will concentrate as much as possible in four poles of development, namely Phnom Penh, Kompong Som, Battambang and Kompong Cham.

In short, the Plan of Reconstruction and Development (1973-80) in the fields of industry provides for the following programmes:

Plan of reconstruction
approximate cost ..... US$155.2 millions

Plan of development
average rate of growth 10%

New employment ..... 37,600 workers

Small projects:
- cost of small projects ..... not estimated
- number of small enterprises to create 660

Big projects:
- investment costs of large projects ..... $187.2 millions
- number of main industrial projects 66

Substructure —The thorough fares are essential for the development programme.

In particular, the roads system of the country at the present time, has suffered systematic destruction from the war. The Public Work Service must elaborate a reconstruction programme for the near and long term.

Concerning the re-arrangement of the roads system, it is necessary to remark that the existing large roads axis converge towards only one point, which is Phnom Penh. It is accordingly a monocentrical system or "a unique pole system".

Considering the possibilities of the present and future development of the country, one must recommend a decentralized system which consists of multiplying the poles of development and joining them by the main axis. Phnom Penh, Kompong Som, Battambang and Kratie are suggested as poles of development.

These four poles being fixed, it is desirable to undertake the study of reconstruction and development on the basis of this principle of re-organization to four poles.

The following data give the amounts of the investment during the two periods of reconstruction and development:

a — Railroads: (in millions of US$)

	1973-75	1976-80
Restoration	1.70	
Improvement		4.66
Expansion to South Vietnam		2.41
Expansion to Laos		4.57

b — Roads systems: (in millions of US$)

Total of investments	53.00	56.94

c — City streets: (in millions of US$)

Estimation	2.63

d — Waterways: (in millions of US$)

Investments, including Port of Phnom Penh and Kompong Som	41.60	103.07

e — Air traffic: (in millions of US$)

	22.99	24.00

f — Post and telecommunication

	8.55	13.29

Tourism —In 1969, the number of tourists reached 46,706 with a growth rate of 31.6% per year. Because of the war, these figures have been very much reduced (9,000 tourists in 1971) and much tourist equipment has suffered damages.

As the government has classified tourism as a high priority, at the same rank as agriculture, the Plan of Reconstruction and Development should appropriate significant credits to tourist substructures. As soon as peace returns the three main tourist zones of Siemreap, Phnom Penh and Kompong Som should be reconstructed.

a—In the sphere of hostelry, if Phnom Penh already has a comfortable figure of bedrooms (636 bedrooms),on the other hand, it is necessary to repair most of them all and to add others in Siemreap Angkor. There the repairs will take from six months to two years in order that Siemreap should have 300 comfortable bedrooms. The Plan of development relates to the construction of many high ranks hotels as well as hotels for economic-class tourism.

b—The existing airports of Phnom Penh and Siemreap will not suit future needs. The airport of Phnom Penh (Pochentong) will be reserved for internal traffic. A new international airport is provided for in the north-west of Phnom Penh (Bek Chan, 25 km from Phnom Penh), with the standard suitable for Boeing 747. The present airport of Siemreap, located too near the Angkor temples will be condemned to avoid pollution and the damage that the big airplanes will cause to the monuments. Another international airport is provided for 30 km East of the town of Siemreap.

c—The arrangements of tourists poles are made with the intent to attract the tourists for a longer sojourn. The project of "Khmer Republic in Miniature" of KRIM will show the life's aspects and the traditional economy of the Khmer people. The demonstrations and the economic activities of the country will allow the tourists to observe the works of handicraft and Khmer art.

E—POLICY INSTRUMENTS.

Monetary policy —Because of the necessity for fast reconversion of the economy, the monetary policy must be a flexible and efficient instrument. It must aspire to create three essential functions, defined as following:

i) establishment of a sound financial sector, able to furnish adequate financial services.

ii) establishment of qualified policies to stimulate saving in general (internal and external) and through advised policies of credit to achieve an equilibrium in the balance of payments.

iii) creation of favourable conditions for successful investment and for the setting up of a local financial market in the future.

In order that these functions can be realized, the future attitude of the government must provide a sense of coherence and stability. The financial sector including beside the commercial banks, the institutions for the investment of development, must be reinforced.

At present, the actual situation of Cambodia is characterized by the weakness and the underdevelopment of the financial sector. The absence of banking and commercial facilities is retarding the growth of economic affairs. Because of the absence of such facilities, credits are furnished, in the majority

of cases, by individual dealers and lenders at a very high rate of interest. The development of normal affairs is thus hindered.

On the other side, according to our verifications, the affairs of banks are particularly concentrated on import financing. Such activity will diminish because, during the post-war period, the imports will be reduced.

The solution for all these problems is that the banking organisms must pursue a more aggressive policy. The latter must be concerned with not only the common commercial operations, but also and particularly with the affairs of agriculture and industry.

The short term requirements to control inflation and the long term requirements for the development of savings, depend partly on the appropriate structures and the level of the rates of interest. The reform of these rates is the main problem for monetary policy. The control of inflation rests more in the domain of taxes and other fiscal measures than in the monetary domain.

It would thus be desirable to increase the rates of interest to encourage the transfer of hoarded money into banking deposits. The purpose is to diminish the monetary liquicity which creates the inflationist menace. The structure of the present rate of interest is unreal and should be revised.

Fiscal policy —The inflationist pressures are not going to disappear after the war. The demobilization of troops, the residual latent unemployment and the chronic sub-employment will maintain unemployment at a high level.

Solving this problem requires the maintenance of public investment at a high level, which creates supplementary inflationist pressures.

With a view to reducing inflation to a reasonable level, it is well to correct the distortions of the budget's expenditures. Such correction would only be efficient if there is a reform of administration in charge of recovery of receipts.

It is necessary that public expenditures be brought back to a reasonable level, compatible with production needs, for example 15% of the GNP by the end of this ten year period. It is necessary in this case to redirect consumption expenditures towards public investments.

The maintenance of a large budget in time of peace, even financed by taxes, remains a source of inflationist pressures, because taxation beyond some limit, will become itself a source of inflationist pressure.

Promotion of exports —Immediately, imports should be reduced, import substitution industries set up, and agricultural exports increased.

Such actions would bring success. But lack of confidence concerning agricultural products exports, so far as source of receipt of foreign monies, is based on various factors:

i) the terms of trade act inevitably against agricultural products.

ii) the demand for such products is slight or uncertain, by reason of the high international competition.

iii) A country which depends on the exports of a few products towards a few markets is vulnerable because prices may suddenly fall, reducing in a dramatic way the income of foreign monies.

The factors above specified are true at any time. In order to prepare for them, it is well to take some necessary preventive measures, during this post war period. The diversification of agriculture can be accordingly considered.

Concerning the setting up of industry for replacement of imports, this can help produce an equilibrium of trade. Nevertheless, the expansion of such a sector is limited because of the narrowness of the local market. Such substitution will create demands for protectionism, however.

The best solution will be to achieve a balance between industries of replacement and the promotion of exports in general. Because of possible and unforeseeable degradations and unfavourable terms of exchange for agricultural products and raw materials, a special emphasis must be given to the promotion of exports of manufactured products, finished or semi-finished.

Balance of payments — In the development process, the increase of exports must play a determinant role in the seeking of an equilibrium in the balance of payments, and is the key factor in ending dependence on foreign aid. For that reason, it is necessary:

— to reduce imports although the high rate of the latter, during the restoration phase, is still necessary.

— to increase the value of capital goods.

It is necessary that capital goods be increased by 50% to 60% at the end of this 10 year period.

Concerning the export of rice, rubber and other agricultural products, it is necessary that the level of the pre-war period, be achieved as early as the beginning of the development phase.

It is probable that at the expiration of this 10 year period the deficit of the balance of payments will not be completely eliminated. Nevertheless, it must be reduced to a minimum value, and this value must be offset by the external resources of external (loans, foreign investments, etc.).

Economic independence in the sphere of foreign trade must be understood in the sense of the ability to finance the deficit by loans at term, rather than by grants or other forms of aid. Economic independence does not mean the exclusion of all movement of capital.

If economic independence is to be reached at the end of ten years, the balance of payments must not be in a strong deficient status, requiring a continued injection of foreign aid.

Regional economic cooperation — During the decennium post-war, although our primary goal is national development, there is real opportunity for regional development through Southeast Asia.

Economic and regional integration is a way to improve the possibilities of development for a group of nations, and often the members get substantial benefits. In the long term, the development of a country to its greatest efficiency will rest on cooperative development with its neighbours.

There are many attractions in regional economic integration: large markets for products, great possibilities of investments, high specialization of economic activities by the adoption of international subcontracts, assurance of the power of the group in international economic affairs.

F — ROLE OF THE PRIVATE SECTOR.

Public investments are furnished by the State (Banks, Budget) or from Foreign aid (gratuitous aids, loans). They are rather easily foreseen and entered into the plans.

Private investments are, on the contrary, diffuse and their importance cannot be precisely calculated.

G—ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY FOR PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION.

There are three organs for the administration of plan and control.

The Ministry of Planning —In the council of ministers, the Minister of Planning has to look at all objectives concerning the development of the country. He supervises the two following bodies:

The Directorship of Planning and National Development— Created by decree no. 277-NS of June 25th 1956, it serves as the organism of work and management of the Ministry of Planning, because it is necessary to coordinate the activities of the services which relate to the economic and social development, to prepare the projects of development, and to follow the execution of plans.

Managed by a high ranking official appointed by decree, this administration is composed of an administrative section and an inspection service. The administrative section includes an order office and a secretariat office in charge of the management of the various contributions to the financing of the Plan. Thus there is an office for the funds coming from the budget, an office for foreign aid, an office for the Colombo Plan and an office for the PNUD of the U.N. Concerning the Plan's Inspection, its members have to establish a general report, to carry out on the spot verifications and to assist the ministerial services in the preparation of the operations to be followed.

This administrative structure has undergone numerous modifications since its setting up, because of diversification of its responsibilities and an increase in funds.

The Higher Council of Planning and National Development — Fixed by decree no. 14-NS of January 14th 1956, the Higher Council of Planning and National Development is the motivating organism for planning.

The Council includes the Prime Minister, the Ministers of Planning, of Finances, of Public Works, etc., the Governor of the National Bank of Cambodia, two representatives of the National Assembly and the Senate. The director of Directorship of National Planning is a reporting member. The organization has been conceived in a fairly flexible way so that the Higher Council can invite any public and private persons to participate at its assemblies for giving explanation and advice.

Being a conception organism, the Higher Council elaborates the plans, which must be approved by the Council of Ministers, and coordinates in this effect the proposals from different services.

Being a direction organ, it controls the execution of the projects. Being an organ of council, it proposes to the Cabinet the adoption of legal and regulatory texts which appear necessary. It prepares yearly a report concerning the plan which must be delivered to the president of the Council. Thus, it is a political organism, which remains the supreme body in matters of planning.

Section 3

MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS

A—TECHNICAL PROBLEMS OF PLANNING.

Flexible (or indicative) planning —It is necessary to state precisely that the development plans in the Khmer Republic are indicative plans. In the planning technique, one distinguishes in effect:

a—the authoritative (or imperative) planning, like Soviet planning. It suppresses the market economy, the competition, the profit. All this forsees the disappearance of the individual property, the means of production and their collectivization. The production is guided not by the demand of consumers, but by the plan fixed by the central authority.

b—the flexible (or indicative) planning is based on the economy of market and strives constantly to prevent the difficulties of adjustment of production and consumption. The individual property of the means of production remains the foundation of the liberal system of the economy. If there are public enterprises, these are particularly called to play a pilot role.

The planning in the Khmer Republic is thus a compromise between the necessities of an economy of competing market, and of an orientation of the economy for the service of the general interest.

Beginning from this general conception, one proceeds on one side to collect the essential data of our resources, our means, our possibilities, and on the other side to tend towards the fixed aim which is a rate of growth of GNP of 6% per year.

Developing countries lack statistics and particularly good statistics. For a number of years, the Khmer Republic made a commendable effort towards improving its statistical system. But the war destroyed its usefulness.

a—Inventory of the physical resources.—In the former plans of development, one part was devoted to the valuation of natural resources, such as forests, mines, land registry, etc. The forest survey of 1958 had given the forest areas by types of forests and at the same time the cultivated areas. The Mekong Committee (international organism) continues the census studies of the hydraulic, mining, piscicultural resources, etc. We have more and more data on the areas occupied for cultivation, on the importance of livestock, on the economy of the agricultural farm, etc. Unfortunately, the present war which has destroyed quite a lot of our resources and made the data inaccurate.

b—Inventory of human resources.—The Khmer demography has been known in a fairly precise way according to 1962's census. The data of this census has also lost much of its usefulness because of the war.

It is thus necessary, when peace returns to revise and/or replace the old inventories at a great cost of time and money.

B—POLITICAL CONSTRAINTS.

One can consider this problem under the internal and external angle.

Internal political constraints —Two economic groups play a marginal role in our national economy:

i) The foreigners in Khmer Republic, Chinese and Vietnamese, comprise only 10% of the total population, but they play an important economic role. It is economically the most active and powerful group. Laborious and organized, the Chinese and Vietnamese are occupied particularly with commerce, handicraft and industries. They integrate themselves with difficulty in the economic process of the nation.

ii) The large rubber plantations are the property of the big French companies and work only for the export of rubber to the international markets. They use the manual labour of the country, but the bulk of their profit is transferred abroad and remitted to the foreign stockholders.

External political constraints —With regard to its neighbours, the Khmer Republic is underpopulated (38 inhabitants per square Km) whereas Thailand and Republic of Vietnam are much more populated (twice or three times).

On the other hand, Cambodia has broad frontiers with these countries which are difficult to watch. One often sees through these frontiers activities of contraband, of robberies and of encroachments. That is how one part of our resources and production are drained off abroad without control, losing a source of profit for the national economy.

Good regional cooperation between the countries of ASEAN would be one means of reducing this fraudulent movement of wealth.

C—SOCIO-CULTURAL CONSTRAINTS.

Among these constraints one can note the following facts:

Unity of language, of race and of religion —93% of the population are Khmers, speaking the same language and practicing Buddhism. Only 7% of the population are foreigners, mainly Chinese and Vietnamese.

The national culture is the cement of the country's unity. Buddhism reinforces the bonds uniting the Khmers. The influence of Buddhism deeply impresses our manners and even the landscape (villages around the Buddhist temples).

From the point of view of national development, even if the monks contribute to assure morals of good manners in the rural district, their number (about 50,000 monks) represents nevertheless a working force which is not used.

The main educational problems —The present education system derives, to a great extent, from the French colonial system. It is not adapted to the modern conditions of our economy. The first year which followed independence were characterized by a réaction to the policy of French obscurantism, whence the multiplication of a great number of schools and a very fast growth of the number of students. For want of competent teachers and appropriate pedagogical means, the qualitative result is far from satisfactory (see statistical data in section 7).

Another unfortunate effect of this policy is the great scholastic loss. A high percentage of students cannot complete their studies during the scholastic cycle. As there are not many professional schools to train these categories of students, most of the students having not completed their study are the idlers or the semi-intellectuals, as one calls them in Cambodia. Not having any professional skills, they have difficulty finding a job.

Market of employment — In the years to come, with a demographic increase of 2.7% per year, and a percentage of potential working population of 24.13% for men and 24.73% for women, one estimates that each year the number of new young persons appearing on the employment market amounts to about 70,000 persons.

This figure represents approximately a 5% increase of manual labour per year. If the Plan of Reconstruction and Development will come into application, a total of 70,000 workers per year will be easily absorbed.

But where there are problems, is in training these young persons for their professions. It is not an easy task if one compares on one hand the professional structure and on the other hand the professional qualities of the new workers. Now the professional structure which is not changing economically is, 80% farmers, 4% manufacturers, and 16% merchants and the service staff. Among the 70,000 new job seekers, the majority are failures from secondary general education, who reject rural and manual work and prefer to be crowded in town for a small job in the office, even if poorly paid.

D — ADMINISTRATIVE OBSTACLES.

Like others in the course of development, the administrators of Planning and the other administrators in charge of the execution and the control of plans are not very competent. We have already said that the three development plans succeeded one another in a discontinuous way.

The Ministry of Planning does not always have the means for achieving its goals.

a — On the one hand, its staff is limited in size and in ability. It has great difficulty in conceiving, executing and controlling a plan. The institutions of the United Nations and the experts from the friendly countries have tried to offer assistance, but up to the present, we do not have specialists in this domain.

b — On the other hand, the Ministry of Planning does not have sufficient authority over other ministries to execute the works recommended by the Plan. In the governmental hierarchy, the Ministry of Planning is a ministry like the others, with little consideration from the part of the other ministries.

E — SUBSTRUCTURE CONSTRAINTS.

a — A flat plain less than 200 metres above sea level constitutes 92% of the Khmer Republic's territory. Mountains border the circumference with ample passageways for transportation. In spite of this, the road facilities are poor.

The highways start particularly from Phnom Penh forming a network, while the excentric agglomerations communicate very little between them. The development plan has provided for a new road system based on poles of development from which the highways will radiate.

b—Waterways: the Mekong is an international river and navigation on this river is in theory free according to the international law. Cambodia has in the medium course of Mekong some 500 kilometres of waterways, while the delta belongs to South Vietnam.

Navigation on this river depends therefore on the diplomatic relations between the two countries and on the security along the delta. The economic life of Cambodia which depends to a great extent on the maritime and fluvial transport is influenced by navigation on the Mekong.

c—Sea and coast: Cambodia has more than 400 Km of coasts and two ports which have some importance in international relations. The principal port is Kompong Som which trades with the countries of the region and the more distant countries.

Fishery resources and their conservation suffer from excessive and clandestine fishing practiced by foreign boats, which violate the maritime space of Cambodia.

d—Population: A constraint exists also in the geographical distribution of the population in Cambodia. In general, the central plain is heavily populated with a density from 50 to 200 inhabitants per Km2. In contrast, the mountains and the excentric zones have a density sometimes less than one inhabitant per km2. The Development Plan aspires to develop more harmoniously the different zones of the country.

Section 4

ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY

A—BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT IN THE COUNTRY.

Like most of the countries in this region, the Khmer Republic has a university system that is very young. The first embryo of higher education came into being in 1949, and it is only from 1965 onwards that great strides have been made, following rapid progress in primary education from 1945, and in secondary education from 1953, the year of the country's independence.

During the past decade, the number of students has increased very rapidly, and the present war has had no effect upon the students' enrolment: 414 students in 1960, 2319 in 1965, 5753 in 1970 and 7496 in 1971.

For the academic year 1971-72, the students' enrolment in the 28 faculties is as follow:

University of Phnom Penh:	
1 — Law and Economics	1910
2 — Medicine	1111
3 — Dentistry (include in Medicine)	
4 — Science	1489
5 — Arts and humanities	1312
6 — Pharmacy	543
7 — Business	180
8 — Pedagogy	295
9 — Higher Normal School (included in Sciences & Arts)	
Technical University:	
10 — Civil Engineering	32
11 — Electronics	51
12 — Arts and Trades	10
13 — Applied Chemistry	66
14 — Electrotechnic	58
15 — Structural Construction	49
16 — Textile	9
17 — Mining	23
University of Fine Arts:	
18 — Architecture	58
19 — Plastic Arts	37
20 — Archaeology	60
Buddhist University:	
21 — Buddhist Studies	54
University of Agronomic Sciences:	
22 — General Agriculture	40
	29

23 — Veterinary Medicine	34
24 — Rural Economics	11
25 — Forestry	16
26 — Fishery	11
University of Kompong Cham:	
27 — Mechanics	8
28 — Tropical Agriculture	13
University of Battambang:	
29 — Food Technology	16

Among the three provincial universities, two of them have been destroyed since the present war: University of Takeo-Kampot (1st May 1970) and University of Kompong Cham (partially destroyed). For these three universities, the students' enrolment has declined from 357 students in 1970 to 37 in 1972.

On the contrary, the universities which are in the capital have more and more students in spite of the present war.

Since the principal role of the universities is to provide the framework for the economic development of the country, the percentage of students in each branch of study tends to approximate the needs of the Khmer Republic. Thus for example, in 1969-70, the branches of study chosen by students showed the following percentages:

Humanity	12.4%
Education	3.8
Fine Arts	2.9
Social Sciences	19.4
Exact & Natural Science	32.0
Engineering Sciences	10.4
Medical Sciences	16.9
Agriculture	2.2
Total	100.0%

Thus it may be seen that more than 60% of students opted for scientific and technical studies.

B — ROLE AND PURPOSES OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE COUNTRY.

i) Higher Education is an investment. — Education in general is considered at the same time a consumption and an investment. The instruction is in effect providing food for the mind in order to enhance the human kind and man's leisure, allowing him to spend life pleasantly as well as to strengthen his work and provide human capital, both factors of production.

With regard to technical education and higher education, one can say that they are both particularly good from the investment standpoint. It appears therefore essential that these two categories of education be pursued.

In some developed countries, one can measure the contribution from education to economic growth. Thus, in the United States of America, from

1929 to 1957, the real national income increased at the annual rate of 2.93%. One finds that five factors have particularly contributed to this growth:

— increase of total employment	34%
— education	23
— increase of invested capital	15
— progress of knowledge	20
— economic size	9

For the developing countries and particularly in the Khmer Republic, we must expect a higher percentage owing to the development of education.

ii) Purposes of the education. — The objective of education is not only economic development, although in the modern world it is essential for raising the standard of living and human welfare.

The pedagogues have tried to group the different aims and objectives into four parts:

— the cultural objectives, which consist of the transmission of knowledge from one generation to the other;

— the ethical objectives for the promotion of moral and spiritual values;

— the political objectives for the consolidation of national unity, in the frame of mutual understanding and world peace;

— the social and economic objectives like preparation for employment, development of technical progress, and the welfare of all.

If the last aim of education is the principal objective of higher education, it is not at all necessary to lose sight of the three other objectives which constitute the other factors of man's environment.

C — COORDINATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING WITH NATIONAL ECONOMIC PLANNING — UNIVERSITY EXPANSION AND NATIONAL MANPOWER NEEDS.

A great deal of effort (in quantitative terms) has been put into the development of education, if one is to judge from budgetary appropriations and personnel involved (30% of the personnel in public administration).

Educational programmes and systems are, however, not very suitable as they originated from the old ruler countries, and have been transplanted into these newly-independent countries, like Cambodia, without any modifications.

Efforts are necessary to develop in both directions a quantitative expansion of schools (see section 7), new universities, new faculties, new technical institutes, as well as a qualitative creation of new educational techniques and curricula.

We can think to the following remarks made by the Secretary General of the United Nations in 1971 (51st session of the Social and Economic Council):

"Since many programmes and systems of instruction, at all levels, applied by industrialized countries, have practically been adopted just as they are by developing countries, consequently the major proportion of instruction given in the latter does not respond to their needs".

"A great part of in-school and out-of-school education is not directly applicable to industrial work and a number of those who have finished their studies find it difficult to put their knowledge to good use, while there still exists a demand of qualified employees in their specialization".

"Therefore, a great number of those who have attained a level of higher studies are tempted to go abroad. Moreover, it happens that those who have completed their studies and succeed in getting a job must however receive an intensive complementary training within the enterprise before being able to work with satisfactory efficiency".

i) Manpower and cadre — Local manpower comes directly from the countryside. The absence of trade unionism in Khmer Republic indicates the innate individualism of peasants and also the fact that jobs in industry and finance is a relatively new phenomenon.

Before the present war period, the following figures have been estimated for manpower in Cambodia:

Sectors	Higher cadres	Middle cadres	Other workers	Active population
Primary	5	470	1,895	2,707,000
Secondary	108	445	3,385	110,000
Tertiary				
Administration	190	570	3,750	93,000
Non administration	78	520	4,500	286,100
Total	381	2,005	13,530	3,196,100

We can see that cadres in primary sector are of little importance (0.08%). The administration alone takes up the same number of high cadres as the rest of the other activities in the country. The total number of cadres is of little importance, about 0.5% of overall manpower.

ii) Training and utilization of cadres — Most of the cadres were trained in industrialized countries. This generation is entrusted with the creation of universities or centres of training or with reforms of these organizations. They will tend naturally to follow the pattern of those establishments in developed countries in which they were trained. It results in many difficulties for adaptation in developing countries.

Given the weakness of cadres, the demand for new cadres is enormous to meet current shortages and anticipated increases in employment opportunities.

iii) Coordination of higher education planning — On one side, the Ministry of National Education maintains relations with other employer ministries, like Industry, Labour, Agriculture, etc.

The Ministry of National Education knows our national needs and communicates them to the presidents of different universities. That is how the "technical" universities fit the recruiting according to the needs. In the given table, at Section 4 paragraph A, one sees that the technical universities have very few students. It is in these "technical" universities that one applies the system of entrance examination to particular faculties and only qualified students can enter.

On the other hand, the University of Phnom Penh (nine faculties) inherited the French system of open admission. Of the total of 7,496 students for the Khmer Republic as a whole, one counts 6,840 students for the University of Phnom Penh alone while the seven others have only a total of 656. Thus the University of Phnom Penh receives 91% of the students.

It is not possible to reduce the number of students in the University of Phnom Penh, because it is the only one where the entrance is free and where the sole condition is possession of the baccalaureate of secondary education. This is the reason why the classrooms in the Faculty of Law and the Faculty of Arts are too small for so great a number of students. For the same reason, we understand that the Faculty of Medicine and the Faculty of Pharmacy have more and more students, above two and three hundred students per year.

D—SURVEY OF HIGHER EDUCATION RESOURCES AVAILABLE FOR DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PURPOSES.

These can be listed as follows:

a) Research. The works of professors in the university laboratories; doctorate theses presented by students (Medicine, law, economic sciences); ongoing projects or study notes by engineers; field research on experimental farms attached to the universities. All this work is oriented towards present-day occupations, thus contributing to the solution of development problems.

b) Re-training courses, seminars and public lectures: Universities are always open for refresher courses so necessary in this era of rapid scientific and technological change. The universities organise seminars and public lectures on subjects chosen as principal themes in development programmes.

c) Extension training: The universities develop their public relations and put into practice certain results of their researches. The extension training technique can take several forms: exhibiting research work done by professors and students, the display of modern products and techniques, lectures giving information, etc.

d) The role of consultants: The universities participate in the solution of national problems. Certain professors are nominated as experts in the ministries. Others are members of commissions for national planning and economic and social development. Sometimes a precise research task is assigned to a team of professors and researchers.

E—EXTENT OF UNIVERSITY INVOLVEMENT CURRENTLY PREVAILING IN THE FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS.

In the formulation and implementation of development plans, it is necessary for the country to encourage study and research. Up to now, some encouragement is given to university personnel, as follow:

a) Salaries and bonuses.—Teachers have generally slightly higher salaries than those of workers at the same level in other fields, although they are still badly paid, compared to personnel in the private sector. In addition, teachers receive substantial teaching bonuses.

b) Honours attached to certain posts.—The rectors of universities have the rank and prerogatives of government secretaries of state. Deans are granted

a bonus for the important position. The same is true for administrators and heads of departments.

c) Budget.—Although we are not rich and the national budget is restricted, fairly ample funds are given each year to finance university research work and equipment.

d) Close cooperation.—Some cadres working in the Ministry of Planning and in the financial sector are often required to give lectures in the universities. On the other hand, many students must do their research work in the different ministries or banks.

F—TYPES OF CONTRIBUTION THE UNIVERSITY COULD MAKE TOWARDS DEVELOPMENT PLANNING—TRAINING, RESEARCH, CONSULTATION, ETC.

There are two categories:

The first category of relationships between the universities and the Ministry of Planning embraces the totality of relationships in the direction of universities towards the Ministry of Planning:

i) The universities participate in the elaboration of plans of economic development, either directly with the nomination of personalities from the university community in planning commissions, or indirectly by the intermediary of the ministerial departments for national education and agriculture which higher education establishments come under.

ii) The universities provide the country with the competence necessary for economic and social development. Each year the students graduating from the universities are recruited by the administration or the private sector and put to work on national development programmes.

iii) In the framework of development plans, the universities participate in their execution (see section D above).

The second category is that of the part of the Ministry of Planning towards the universities:

i) By communiques and meetings, the Ministry of Planning informs the public, and thus the universities, of the Plan's execution and of its results and achievements. Informed in this way, the universities are in a position to criticize constructively and to direct their research work.

ii) With orientation fixed upon development plans and the investment principles outlined in these plans, the universities can orient the studies of their students towards such and such a branch required by the State. Thus the universities can fix their orders of priorities in matters of enrolments, organization of courses, research work in the laboratory and in field-work.

iii) Whether in the field of industry or of agriculture, the universities direct the work of students towards research into industrial products favoured by the government and towards areas for the colonization of new land chosen by the department of agriculture as being of top priority.

G—PROBLEMS PREVENTING A CLOSER COOPERATION BETWEEN THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE GOVERNMENT.

The principal obstacle for closer cooperation is that all the universities depend on the Ministry of Education, and not on the proper departments.

For example, the Faculty of Medicine which trains physicians must depend on the Ministry of Health, the Faculty of Public Works on the Ministry of Public Works, etc.

But from the administration point of view, the managers of the Ministry of Education wish to maintain all the faculties under the tutelage of the sole Ministry of National Education.

H—RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ALLEVIATING THESE PROBLEMS AND BRINGING ABOUT A CLOSER WORKING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE UNIVERSITY AND THE GOVERNMENT FOR DEVELOPMENT PLANNING.

a) In spite of the real existence of relationships between the universities and Ministry of Planning, it is regrettable that the universities are sometimes forgotten by the ministerial departments. Thus, to solve certain new problems demanding work of considerable research and competence, university workers are only called in at the last minute. The result is that certain matters have dragged on for a long time and their solution has been slowed down.

b) Better coordination is desired. Paying great attention to public relations, certain higher education establishments have managed to improve this collaboration with the public services that will later employ students on their leaving the universities.

c) More frequent contact between the organisers of public services and university researchers would no doubt contribute towards improving both the quality of teaching and the efficiency of the services. With finality of teaching being one of the objectives, closer relations between organisers and researchers would enable students to be trained more efficiently.

d) The universities would like at times to have more means for their works. As is the general case in developing countries the means at the disposal of universities are rather limited: lack of personnel, materials and funds. Thus the gap in the level of studies betwen universities in developed nations and those in developing countries becomes increasingly marked.

Section 5
CONCLUSIONS

In the conclusion of this study I would like to make a few remarks:

Concerning university institutions — In a general way, all educational authorities emphasize the insufficiency of university equipment, the lack of native professional staff, and the dispersion of the available means.

With a view to improve the quality of education and to adapt it to the need of the country, the following solutions are proposed:

a) to regroup the faculties or schools into a restricted number of university units and coherent institutes according to the disciplines of education, with a view to search for a rational use of the available means and staff and to adopt an efficient education, diminishing the cost of administration. It is necessary to reduce the 37 actual faculties to a smaller number.

b) to put all the universities under the tutelage of the sole Ministry of National Education and Culture. This wish, formulated by a certain number of the responsible members, is judged inopportune, at least for some universities. Actually, the University of Agronomic Sciences continues to depend on the Ministry of Agriculture. A National School of Administration, training the high rank officials, depends on the Presidency of Council since its creation in 1972.

c) to suppress some faculties or schools which do not correspond to the need of the country or which are not very economic and to slow down the activities of some others because of lack of means or professors. The students of the corresponding disciplines would be able to be sent abroad in order to pursue their studies.

d) to create one university central library with a documentation center and campus with a view to creating favourable living and study conditions for the students. The first works of the central library was begun in July 1972 with the aid of the PNUD (UNO institution).

Structure and programmes of education — The authorities declared their anxiety about the generalized decrease of the standard of instruction during the two last years. In order to contribute a solution to the problem, we propose the following points:

a) to regroup the faculties or schools:

— to organize common courses, notably with regard to the basic scientific education;

— to group together according to the units of education, the laboratories and workshops with a view to organize practical work economically;

— for students taking similar units of education, to have the facilities for exchanges of knowledge and a common library eventually endowed with books and manuals specialized for their disciplines of education.

b) to fit the programmes of education to the realities of the country and to restructure the cycles of higher education. In this respect, we suggest consideration of the following question:

— entrance requirements in the various establishments of higher education;

— duration of studies, to be fixed according to the particularities of each discipline of education;

— reorientation and training of the scholastic failures to suit them to professions at their level.

c) to create one direction of technical and professional education. In spite of its developing country status, Cambodia has given very great importance to higher education, but its real efforts must proceed more realistically on the question of education at the technical level. One technical commission placed under the presidency of the Rector of the Technical University, has been working on the question since September 1971, and will submit a project concerning the direction of technical education, to the Ministry of National Education.

d) to Khmerize the higher education. The majority of professors approve the necessity to Khmerize higher education after 1974, when the first "Khmerized" graduates will appear from high schools.

However, in order to avoid disarray at the entrance to national education and the eventual pursuit of higher studies abroad, it is strongly recommended to proceed to the Khmerization with much prudence particularly with regard to:

— the translation of technical and scientific words from French or English;

— the necessity to maintain a suitable knowledge of French or English from the entrance of secondary school.

Relationships between the university and national development —The necessity to harmonize higher education and the economic development has been stressed. The following suggestions are proposed:

a) to aim at providing by order of priority: technological cadres, managers, economists, teachers of basic sciences.

b) to encourage innovation by the creation of an important center of documentation and by making known research carried out in the advanced and neighbouring countries.

c) to set up applied research centers in order to stimulate our youth to take up research activities and to solve our specific technological problems.

Teaching profession and its training —Higher education suffers from a sharp scarcity of professors. Every year more than a hundred foreign professors are engaged.

The only way to alleviate this lack of qualified professors of higher education is to send our best professors abroad, in order to complete their training.

For those who will not be able to go abroad, the organization of local conferences, seminars and pedagogical training is desirable.

To fit the education to the problems of the country —Maurice Garnier, in his book "The Last Chance of the Third World" has said: the greatest danger for the developing countries are the higher graduates from Europe.

The ignorance of the realities of their own country, the general tendency

to attempt to solve local problems through the application of the Western norms, are the principal grievances that Mr. Garnier has formulated against the rulers of the third world.

Conscious of this danger and with the object of satisfying natural aspirations, Cambodia has since 1965, developed its substructure of higher education. Since the beginning, the desire to provide instruction for all in the country has had the bad effect of producing poorly qualified students.

However, the development of higher education does not mean the abandonment of higher studies abroad. The simple university degree, (the four years of higher studies), is available in Cambodia, however, the post graduate degree is always trained abroad.

Concerning study abroad, Cambodia is handicapped by the problem of languages. Our students continue to go to study in the universities of French language. We must recognize that Southeast Asia is Anglophile, and that the Anglo-Saxon system of education may be more efficient.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Banque Internationale pour la Reconstruction et le Développement. La conjoncture et les perspectives économiques du Cambodge. New York: Departement de l'Asie de l'Est, 1970.

Chambre de Commerce. Programme de stabilisation économique. Phnom Penh: Revue de la Chambre de Commerce, 1971.

Chambre de Commerce. Esquisse commaire du Plan de reconstruction d'après guerre. Phnom Penh: Chambre de Commerce, 1973.

DELVERT, Jean. Le paysan khmer. Paris: Mouton, 1961.

GOUR, Claudes-Gilles. Institutions constitutionnelles et politiques du Cambodge. Paris: Dalloz, 1965.

HALLAK, J. Coûts et dépenses en éducation. Paris: Unesco, 1969.

HAYDEN, Howard. "Higher education and development in Cambodia," in Unesco, Higher education and development in Southeast Asia, v. 2, pp. 177-207.

Ministère de l'Education. Procès verbaux des réunions du Conseil Supérieur des Universités, depuis mars 1970. Phnom Penh: Ministry of Education.

Ministère de l'Education. Colloque national sur l'enseignement supérieur et le développement. Phnom Penh, December 1971. Phnom Penh: document in publication.

Ministère de l'Education. Séminaire national de l'enseignement primaire. Phnom Penh, 1972.

Minstère de l'Education. Le processus de la planification de l'Education; étude du cas en République Khmère. Phnom Penh: Office de planification de l'Education, 1971.

Ministère de l'Information. Cambodge. Phnom Penh, 1962.

Ministère du Plan. Bulletin statistique. Phnom Penh: monthly then quarterly review.

Ministère du Plan. Comptes économiques de la nation. Phnom Penh, yearly publication since 1962.

Ministère du Plan. Le deuxième Plan quinquennal, 1968-72. Phnom Penh, 1970.

Ministère de l'Industrie. Plan de reconstruction et de développement industriel 1973-1980. Phnom Penh, 1973.

Présidence du Conseil (France). La situation économique du Cambodge. Paris: La documentation française, 1961.

Présidence du Conseil (France). Les institutions du Cambodge. Paris: La documentation française, 1969.

PRUDHOMME, Remy. L'économie du Cambodge. Paris: Presses Universitaires, 1969.

Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development. Role of universities in national development planning in Southeast Asia: Proceedings of the workshop held in Singapore, 26-29 July 1971, ed. by Yip Yat Hoong. Singapore, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. Géographie de l'Asie du Sud-Est. Phnom Penh: National Bank of Cambodia, 1963.

TAN Kim Huon. L'Université des Sciences Agronomiques. Phnom Penh: USCA, 1970.

TAN Kim Huon. Les enseignements tirés de la reforme universitaire en France. Phnom Penh: Ministry of Education, 1970.

TAN Kim Huon. Rapport sur le mouvement éducatif en 1970-71 de la République Khmère. Phnom Penh, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. Role des Universités dans la planification du développement économique en République Khmère. Phnom Penh, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. Structure et programme de l'enseignment supérieur en Asie du Sud-Est. Phnom Penh, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. Structure et programme de l'enseignement supérieur en République Khmère. Phnom Penh, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. L'Université au service de la société. Phnom Penh, 1971.

TAN Kim Huon. Tourisme et développement: application en Asie du Sud-Est. Phnom Penh: University of Phnom Penh, 1972.

TAN Kim Huon. L'enseignement forestier en Republique Khmère in Agronomie Khmère (review). Phnom Penh, 1972.

UNESCO. Higher Education and Development in Southeast Asia. Paris: Unesco, 1967-69.

STATISTICAL APPENDICES

KINDERGARTEN

Year	Public	Private	Total
1960-61	—	—	—
1961-62	153	—	153
1962-63	348	—	348
1963-64	288	—	288
1964-65	291	—	291
1965-66	261	—	261
1966-67	271	—	271
1967-68	785	—	785
1968-69	668	340	1,008
1969-70	803	675	1,478
1970-71	—	—	—
1971-72	—	—	—

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Year	Public			Sub-Total	Private	Grant Total
	Government	Government-Aided	Religious			
1960-61	454887	79005	10566	544458	30108	574566
1961-62	492722	70288	10200	573150	30913	604063
1962-63	520902	74237	11030	606169	32348	638517
1963-64	544547	79239	10783	634569	31941	666510
1964-65	595380	89155	10467	695002	31534	726536
1965-66	659254	96570	9434	765258	32051	797309
1966-67	704507	99259	7152	810918	33584	844502
1967-68	768742	95678	9502	873922	33666	907588
1968-69	801433	89308	9620	900361	35616	935977
1969-70	829339	79110	9398	917847	41276	959123
1970-71	—	—	—	—	—	—
1971-72	—	—	—	—	—	—

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Year	Public						Private		Grand Total
	General	Technical		Normal	Religious	Sub-total	General	Technical	
		Autonomous	Associated with Universities						
1960-61	20323	815	830	650	705	23323	13044	—	36367
1961-62	30633	1103	1068	809	656	34269	18945	—	53214
1962-63	33021	1604	1170	787	680	37262	18945	—	56207
1963-64	44813	1057	1920	728	732	49250	22264	—	71514
1964-65	56933	757	2786	922	823	62221	22450	—	84671
1965-66	66518	1533	3313	1092	900	73356	12425	666	86447
1966-67	79532	2312	2834	1323	980	86981	9438	725	97144
1967-68	86208	2584	3097	1865	984	94738	8215	658	103611
1968-69	97808	2284	3245	1769	1062	106168	8537	2345	117050
1969-70	109981	1981	2761	864	1082	116609	8679	2146	127434
1970-71	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1971-72	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

STUDENT ENROLMENT IN NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES, 1960-72

University & Faculty	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		1967-68		1968-69		1969-70		1970-71		1971-72	
	*(1)	**(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
(1) **University of Phnom Penh**																								
Law & Economics	145	164	218	234	249	262	235	327	187	362	201	304	140	339	128	497	93	824	93	987	113	1413	48	191
Medicine	76	84	107	193	117	216	114	197	150	221	150	241	156	321	150	277	151	408	152	423	86	739	64	111
Science	—	50	—	120	—	110	—	114	—	281	—	449	—	469	—	917	—	970	—	1424	—	1361	—	148
Arts & Humanities	—	47	—	75	—	205	—	440	—	589	—	891	—	757	—	1294	—	1348	—	1140	155	1117	182	131
Pharmacy	18	—	22	—	20	—	45	—	61	—	81	—	—	87	—	126	—	158	—	203	—	388	—	54
Business	227	69	195	89	191	94	106	103	103	84	94	84	116	125	147	138	105	174	113	169	100	156	98	18
Pedagogy	650	108	809	98	787	113	728	149	922	302	1092	403	1323	383	1865	354	1769	483	804	201	1080	194	1279	29
Higher Normal School	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	(1)	—	(7)	—	(28)	—	(38)	—	(46)	—	(79)	—	(17)
Total	1116	522	1355	809	1364	1000	1228	1330	1423	1839	1618	2372	1735	2481	2290	3603	2118	4363	1162	4547	1514	5368	1668	682
(2) **Technical University**																								
Civil Engineering	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	104	56	137	80	30	75	29	79	58	62	52	58	25	44	—	3
Electronics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	26	—	24	17	44	33	69	55	81	65	111	96	61	5
Arts & Trades	—	—	—	—	—	—	774	—	1463	—	882	100	613	13	266	45	241	59	322	43	216	25	132	1
Applied Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	—	42	—	37	—	106	24	79	42	110	56	117	70	86	73	57	59	52	6
Civil Aeronautics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	35	—	54	—	69	—	82	—	73	—	40	—	49	—
Itsaks																								
Engineering	—	—	—	—	—	—	52	—	82	—	—	—	120	—	120	—	173	—	69	—	—	—	—	—
Electrotechnics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	74	27	138	51	82	60	114	91	59	111	72	114	111	96	61	5
Building	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	38	31	70	44	46	38	63	59	185	78	23	78	11	94	16	4
Hydrotechnics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	—	54	13	48	17	27	17	—	19	—	13	18	6	15	—
Textile	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	8	24	28	60	35	38	37	21	34	6	18	—	—
Mining	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	23	2	26	26	70	55	74	70	52	95	23	50	—	2
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	868	—	1828	114	1515	322	1146	316	972	470	1096	560	851	573	618	488	386	26
(3) **University of Fine Arts**																								
Choreography	34	—	76	—	99	—	77	—	78	—	167	—	207	—	280	—	237	—	152	—	343	—	332	—
Music	46	—	80	—	107	—	113	—	112	—	120	—	80	—	83	—	105	—	109	—	131	—	90	—
Plastic Arts	208	—	205	—	189	—	141	—	117	—	181	—	139	—	149	5	183	15	185	33	153	30	157	3
Architecture	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	44	—	40	21	40	32	37	38	26	45	—	62	—	5
Archaeology	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	—	15	9	31	19	24	30	22	39	—	56	—	6
Total	288	—	361	—	395	—	331	—	307	—	523	—	461	30	583	56	586	83	494	117	627	148	579	14

*(1) Technical secondary level
**(2) Higher level

STUDENT ENROLMENT IN NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES, 1960-72 (Cont'd)

University & Faculty	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		1963-64		1964-65		1965-66		1966-67		1967-68		1968-69		1969-70		1970-71		1971-72	
	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
(4) **Buddhist University**	40	—	80	—	107	—	113	12	112	15	100	21	97	32	99	44	108	48	114	40	128	34	150	54
(5) **People's University**																								
Technical Training College	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	66	—	105	—	130	—	151	—	84	—	—	—	—	—
Professional Training College	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	134	—	163	—	177	—	184	—	185	—	209	—	151	—
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	200	—	268	—	307	—	335	—	269	—	209	—	151	—
(6) **University of Agronomic Sciences**																								
General Agriculture	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	—	20	—	25	—	23	—	23	—	40
Veterinary Medicine	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	—	15	—	44	—	37	—	32	—	34
Agricultural Economics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	6	—	12	—	11
Forestry	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16	—	31	—	33	—	27	—	28	—	16
Fishery	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	—	26	—	22	—	11
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	36	—	66	—	124	—	119	—	117	—	112
(7) **University of Kompong Cham**																								
Mechanics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	359	—	313	21	265	42	225	61	255	47	147	15	107	8
Tropical Agriculture	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	37	7	38	25	29	62	36	82	—	134	—	22	—	13
Physical Mathematics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	53	—	79	37	106	52	86	65	46	111	—	4	—	—
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	449	7	430	83	400	156	347	208	301	292	147	41	107	21
(8) **University of Takeo-Kampot**																								
Mechanics & Electricity	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	84	—	148	—	164	20	—	—	—	—
(9) **University of Battambang**																								
Mechanics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	155	—	218	—	185	—	41	—	64	—
Food Technology	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	72	—	58	25	25	45	—	20	—	16
Total	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	227	—	276	25	210	65	41	20	64	16
(10) **School of Administration**	36	—	81	32	91	32	108	30	38	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Grand Total	1480	522	1877	841	1957	1032	2648	1372	3708	1968	4405	2722	4157	2978	4962	4395	5014	5411	3565	5753	2784	6216	3105	925

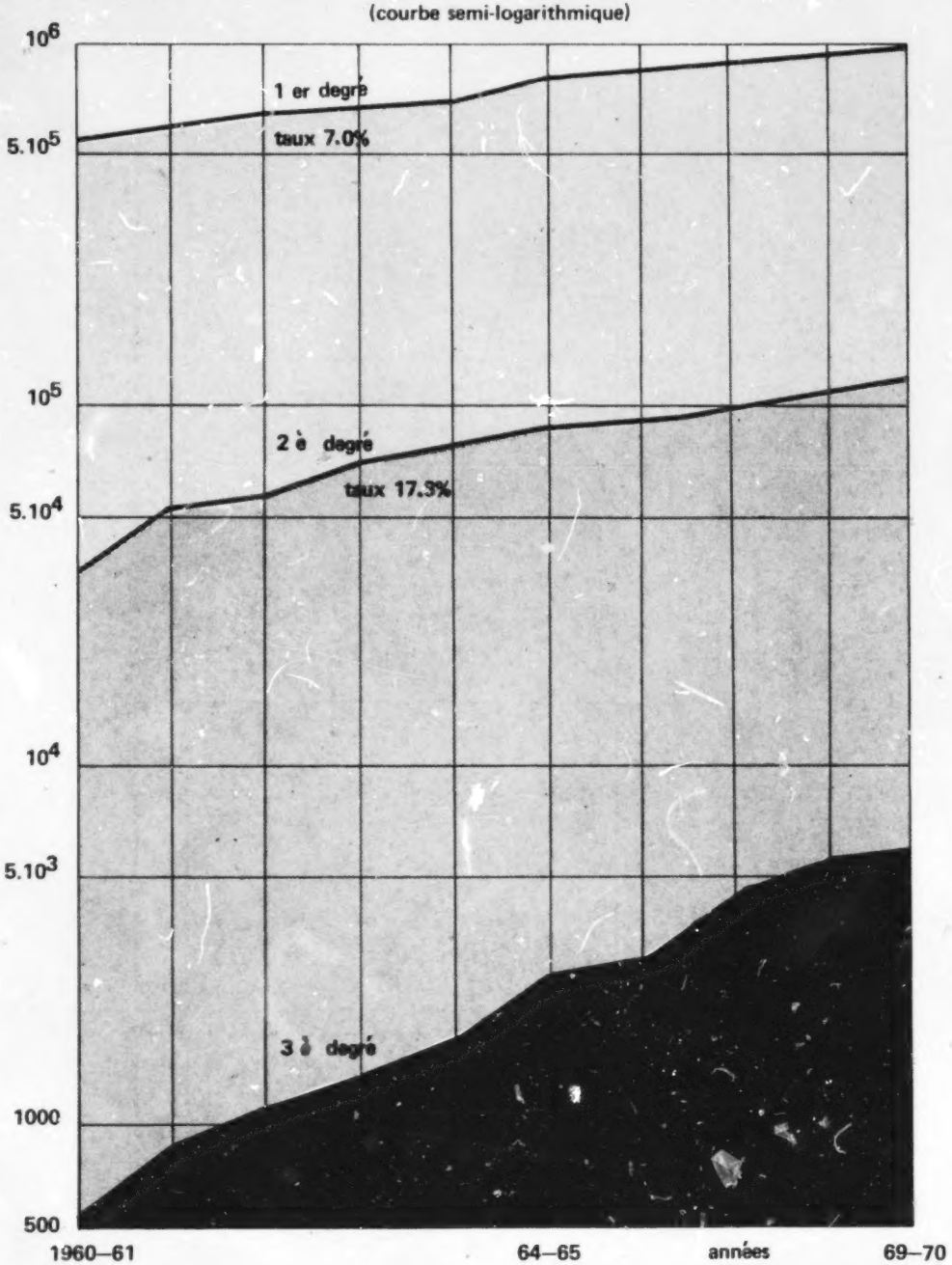
Remark : Revised figures based on the UNESCO statistics of education 1958 and adopted by the (Khmer) Higher Council of Universities on 21st April, 1971.

HIGHER LEVEL STUDENT ENROLMENT IN NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES, 1960-72

UNIVERSITY	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	1968-69	1969-70	1970-71	1971-72
University of Phnom Penh	522	809	1000	1330	1839	2372	2481	3603	4363	4547	5368	682
Technical University	—	—	—	—	114	322	316	470	560	573	488	26
University of Fine Arts	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	56	83	117	148	14
Buddhist University	—	—	—	12	15	21	32	44	48	40	34	54
People's University	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
University of Agronomic Sciences	—	—	—	—	—	—	36	66	124	119	117	112
University of Kompong Cham	—	—	—	—	—	7	83	156	208	292	41	21
University of Takeo-Kampot	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	—
University of Battambang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	45	20	16
School of Administration	—	32	32	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	522	841	1032	1372	1968	2722	2978	4395	5411	5753	6216	925

EFFECTIFS D'ELEVES EN REPUBLIQUE KHMERE
PAR DEGRE D'ENSEIGNEMENT DANS LA DECENNIE 1960–70

(courbe semi-logarithmique)

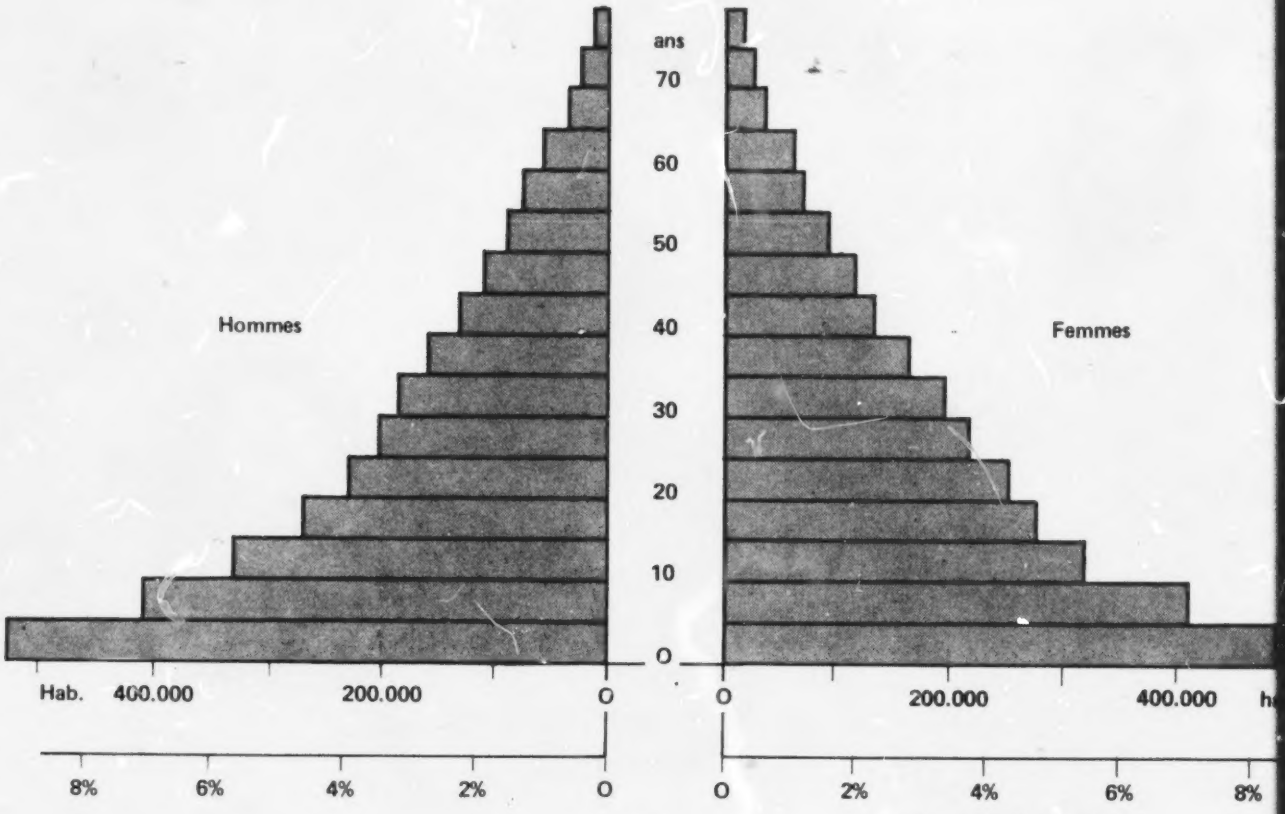


POPULATION DU CAMBODGE PAR SEXE ET PAR ÂGE EN 1962
(chiffres rectifiés)

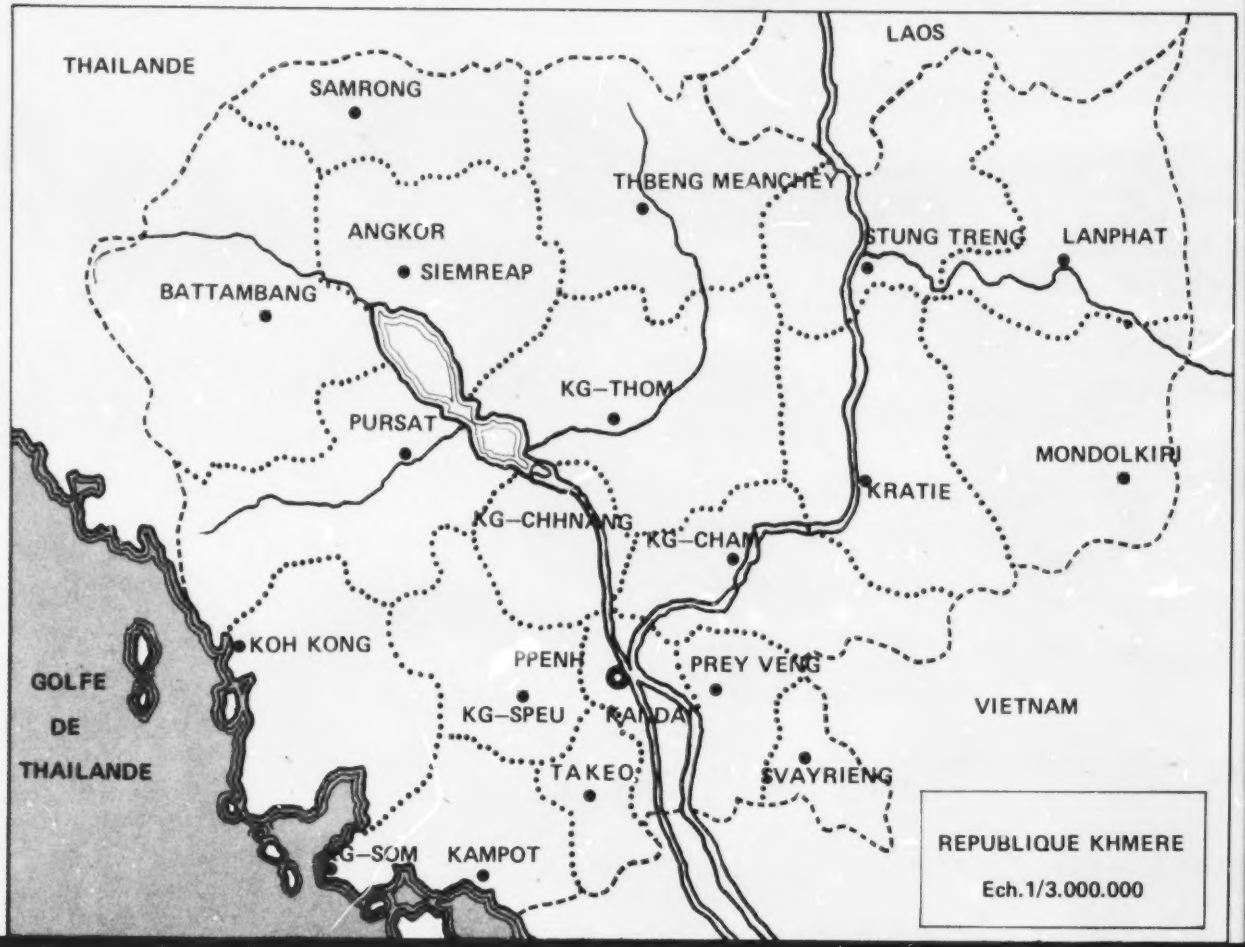
Âge	Sexe masculin		Sexe féminin		Total	
	Nbre absolu	Pour cent	Nbre absolu	Pour cent	Nbre absolu	Pour cent
0-4	526680	9.18	521860	9.04	1048540	18.22
5-9	409740	7.12	403880	7.05	813690	14.17
10-14	330790	5.77	316670	5.52	647460	11.29
15-19	267890	4.66	266030	4.66	533920	9.32
20-24	227980	3.97	240810	4.21	468790	8.18
25-29	203850	3.56	214120	3.76	417970	7.32
30-34	188060	3.28	193420	3.38	381480	6.66
35-39	159750	2.78	158930	2.79	318680	5.57
40-44	129850	2.26	130900	2.30	260750	4.56
45-49	113550	1.98	112540	1.98	226090	3.96
50-54	93960	1.64	93850	1.65	187810	3.29
55-59	72420	1.26	72980	1.27	145400	2.53
60-64	58070	1.02	56730	1.01	114800	2.03
65-69	37260	0.65	37050	0.65	74310	1.30
70-74	22890	0.40	24190	0.43	47080	0.83
75 et plus	19080	0.33	22990	0.40	42070	0.73
Total	2861820	49.90	2866950	50.10	5728770	100.00

1968: 6.8 millions ..... Vers 1983: 10 millions

POPULATION DU CAMBODGE EN 1962 (RECENCEMENT)



MAP OF CAMBODIA (KHMER REPUBLIC)



CURRENCY EQUIVALENTS FOR RIELS

Before August 18, 1969

US$1.00 = Riels 35.00

After August 18, 1969

US$1.00 = Riels 55.54

After October 27, 1971, flexible rate of exchange:

October 1971 -	US$1.00	= Riels	83.31
January 1972			130.50
April 1972			150.00
July 1972			187.00
October 1972			174.00
January 1973			187.00
July 1974			600.00
September 1974			1200.00